

Analysis Plan

Project Name: Measuring the Downstream Health Effects of SSI

Take-up Among Older Adults

Project Code: 2205

Date Finalized: 9/9/2022



This document serves as a basis for distinguishing between planned confirmatory analyses and any exploratory analyses that might be conducted on project data. This is crucial to ensuring that results of statistical tests are properly interpreted and reported. For the Analysis Plan to fulfill this purpose, it is essential that it be finalized and date-stamped before we complete our proposed analyses. This analysis is being conducted on data from a prior randomized control trial that has already been analyzed to test the effect of the treatment, mailed letters, on SSI enrollment. We are now using this data to test the effect of letter-induced SSI benefit receipt on mortality, leveraging the fact that the mailed letters exogenously increased SSI benefit receipt. Once this plan is finalized, a date is entered above, and the document is posted publicly on our team website.

Project Description

While there is robust evidence that social welfare policies improve health, we know less about how the administration of those policies affects health. We propose to examine the mortality consequences of receiving Supplemental Security Income (SSI). Relatedly, we will also examine whether decreasing administrative burden has mortality consequences through higher take-up rates. We leverage random assignment of a prior Social Security Administration demonstration field experiment, which exogenously increased take-up among eligible beneficiaries (Hemmeter et al. 2020), to causally identify the effect of SSI on mortality using mailed-letter assignment as an instrumental variable. The initial study identified over 4 million adults 65 or older who were potentially-eligible for SSI and randomly sent letters to 10% of them in September 2017, informing them of their potential eligibility. It found that these letters, a form of low-cost nudge that reduced learning costs, increased SSI applications by 600% (or 5.0 percentage points) and led to an increase in SSI awards of 340% (or 1.8 percentage points) over the study period. In this study, we take advantage of the random assignment to letters and use it as an exogenous leverage to estimate the effects of SSI award on recipient's mortality in a two-stage estimation procedure.

Preregistration Details

This Analysis Plan will be posted on the OES website at <u>oes.gsa.gov</u> before we conduct the proposed analysis.

Hypothesis

H1: Receipt of letter-induced SSI benefits will decrease mortality.

We acknowledge that SSI receipt is indicative of low income and resources—factors that increase mortality (Backlund et al. 1999). Therefore, our hypothesis refers to a marginal effect of receiving SSI benefits on mortality.

We also acknowledge that because of program linkages and limitations of our data, we will not know whether the effect of SSI benefit receipt on mortality is a pure influence of SSI participation, or whether it is also influenced by the subsequent access people may gain to other programs (e.g. Medicaid/SNAP). Enrolling in SSI benefits may lead to automatic enrollment or enable access to an easier enrollment process for other benefit programs, such as Medicaid and SNAP, but we do not have access to enrollment data for these other programs to parse out these effects. For our broader question, which is understanding the effects of administration on mortality, both potential effects are relevant. Because there's this easy administrative linkage from SSI to Medicaid, increased access to SSI means--due to administrative reasons--access to Medicaid as well. So we're getting the total effect of this administrative easing by reducing learning costs. Another way to think about this is that one possible *mechanism* for the influence of SSI participation on mortality is via its impact on increasing access to other welfare support programs given these programmatic linkages. This is one of many potential mechanisms that may explain that relationship.

Data and Data Structure

This section describes variables that will be analyzed, as well as changes that will be made to the raw data with respect to data structure and variables.

Data Source(s):

Data come from SSA administrative records. Observations are individual-monthly level. The population was drawn from Old-Age, Survivors, and Disability Insurance benefit records. The follow-up data identifies any individuals who applied for SSI benefits, as well as a small number of SSI-program-related covariates (e.g., age, sex, date of death (if applicable), state of residence, whether a SNAP application was filed at the same time as the SSI application). The data comes from the following sources:

- Master Beneficiary Record (MBR): The MBR contains records for all individuals receiving OASDI benefits.
- Supplemental Security Records (SSR): The SSR contains records for all individuals who receive a federal SSI benefit, as well as those who applied for the benefit. This data source also contains information on whether applicants applied for SNAP at the same time they applied for SSI benefits.

- Numerical Identification System (Numident): The Numident contains records for all individuals who filled out an application for a Social Security Number (Form SS-5) and death records, among other records.
- Disability Insurance and Supplemental Security Income Demonstration Projects and Experiments System: This is the SSA demonstration system of record, which includes all non-SSA data for all demonstration projects. This provides the random assignment identifiers of the SSI take-up demonstration field experiment.

Outcomes to Be Analyzed:

The primary outcome of interest is mortality. We will conduct time-to-event analyses, and the unit of analysis will be the individual-month level. Therefore, we will calculate the time from the start of the study (September 2017, when letters were mailed) to the month that the person died or the end of the study period (January 2022). For individuals alive at the end of the study period, observations will be right-censored.

Imported Variables:

The MBR contains information about each individual's address including zip code and state of residence. We will merge in several aggregate-level controls for the context in which a person lives from the American Communities' Survey public use files. These variables will be measured at the zip code or state level as follows:

Zip Code Level Variables:

Economic characteristics

- Median Household Income
- Percent of people living below the poverty threshold
- Unemployment rate

Racial Demographics

- Percent of population who are Black
- Percent of population who are Hispanic

Resources

- Measure of education Percent of people with more than HS
- Broadband access

Data Source for all zip code-level variables: American Community Survey, 5-year estimates for 2017-2019

We will also merge in the following state-level variable:

State-Level Variables:

 Whether the state has automatic Medicaid enrollment given SSI benefit receipt, whether the state has the same eligibility threshold for Medicaid and SSI but no automatic enrollment, or whether the state has a more restrictive Medicaid eligibility threshold than the SSI eligibility threshold.

Data Source: Social Security Administration's Program Operations Manual System

Transformations of Variables:

For subgroup analyses, we will transform the following variables into categorical variables as follows:

Table 1: Variable Transforma	tion Descriptions	
Subgroup (At the time of mailing/random assignment, unless otherwise noted)	Categories	Variable name(s) in dataset
Age	Continuous	age
Sex (as indicated at time of SSN application)	Male/Female	male
Projected SSI payment amount	Maximum federal SSI benefit - individual's OASDI income (Note: this is only based on the person's OASDI income)	potentialssi
Average monthly benefit received	Calculated as the sum of an individual's monthly, federal SSI benefit totals divided by the total number of months during our period of observation they received SSI benefits). Here, we use the average monthly benefit received rather than the total amount or the number of months receiving benefits, because these will likely be highly correlated with mortality. People who die early in the observation period will necessarily receive fewer total months of benefits and a lesser total amount of benefit. We use the average value rather than the proportion of increase because the literature on income and	avessi28

	mortality shows that every additional dollar matters.	
Windfall Elimination Provision/Government Pension Offset	Yes/No	wepgpo created using wep_ind, gpo_ind. If wep_ind = 1 or gpo_ind = 1, new variable wepgpo = 0
OASDI Beneficiary Type	Other, Worker, Spouse, Widow (categories used in Hemmeter et al. (2020)).	bentype2
SNAP application taken, if applied for SSI	This variable will be constructed using the two variables from the MBR. 1) Whether the person was already enrolled at SNAP at the time of SSI application and 2) whether a SNAP application was also taken at the time of SNAP application, we will construct a categorical variable where 0 = no application taken and not already enrolled in SNAP, 1 = not already enrolled in SNAP but application taken, and 2 = already enrolled in SNAP. Note: This variable will not be used in any analysis because of the potential for post-treatment bias. We will only use it to report descriptive statistics about the people who fall into these three groups.	fs_recipient (This data element indicates whether the SSI recipient currently receives food stamps as part of a food stamp family or had applied for food stamps within the 30-day period prior to filing an SSI application.) The categories are: N (Not receiving food stamps), Y (Currently receiving food stamps) or has applied within 30 days prior to filing for SSI benefits), Z (Invalid character(s) transmitted), and Blank (no input made). fs_request (This data element indicates whether SSA field office personnel took a food stamp application for the claimant at the time of application for SSI benefits). The categories are: N (SSA did not take a food stamps application), Y (SSA took the food

		stamps application), Z (Invalid character(s) transmitted), and Blank (no input made). For this subgroup analysis, blank and "Z" responses will be coded as 0 indicating that no application was taken and the person was not already enrolled in SNAP (as described in the previous column). We will also report descriptive statistics detailing how many observations have Blank and "Z" values to convey how much of a problem missing data may be here.
Medicaid State Type	Categorical variable with three possible values: Automatic Medicaid enrollment state (209b), nonrestrictive Medicaid eligibility state without automatic enrollment (SSI Criteria), or restrictive Medicaid eligibility state (1634)	state_group
Race	Black, White, Latino/Hispanic (Note: The Numident does not include the full set of OMB approved race and ethnicities. The actual codes used may depend on the specific values in the data. E.g., there may not be anyone identified as Latino/Hispanic)	race
Random assignment to mailed-letter group	Yes/No	treatment

Lives at the same address as someone who received a letter	Yes/No	New variable spillover_possible = 1 if someone in the treatment = 0 group has the same address (i.e. addr_zip, addr_city, addr_state, addr_scc) as someone in the treatment = 1 group.
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Transformations of Data Structure:

We will transform the data from cross-sectional into time-to-event data.

Data Exclusion:

Since we are leveraging the random assignment from Hemmeter et al. (2020) for our analysis, we will use the 4,016,461 OASDI beneficiaries who are potentially eligible for SSI in their sample. We will not exclude any of these observations.

Treatment of Missing Data:

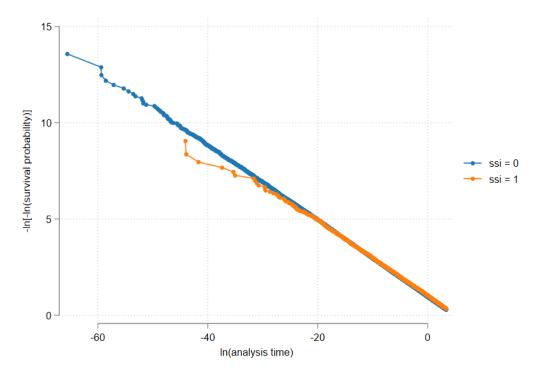
Since this is administrative data, any missing SSA-related data can be directly assigned a null value. There should not be any null values for the variables in our main analysis. There will likely be missing race data, and this is one of the reasons why our race-based analyses are exploratory rather than confirmatory. Observations that are missing race data will be excluded from race-based subgroup analyses. We will report descriptive statistics, so that it is clear how much missing data there is here and how the scope of the missingness affects any of our inferences. There will also likely be missing data for whether a SNAP application is taken. In this case, missing observations will be assigned a zero-value, meaning that no SNAP application was taken (see the Variable Transformation chart above for more information about how this variable is constructed).

Descriptive Statistics, Tables, & Graphs

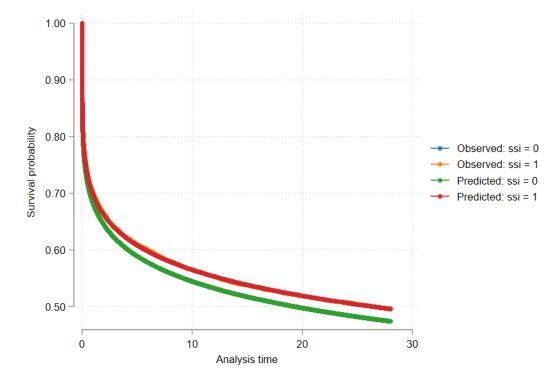
Note: All of the graphs below are based on simulated data. They show an example of what each of the graphs may look like, but they are not based on data from our study.

We will use two methods to demonstrate the proportional hazards assumption is met: 1) a log-log plot and 2) the Kaplan-Meier curve compared with predicted cox model curve:

1) **Log-Log plot:** The two lines in this plot should be roughly parallel if the proportional hazards assumption is not violated.

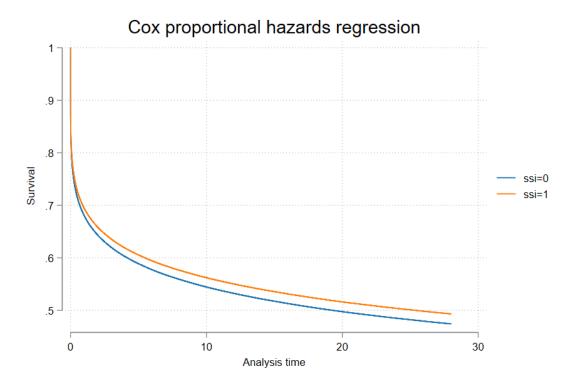


2) **Kaplan-Meier curve compared with predicted cox model curve:** The predicted and observed curves should be close together if the proportional hazards assumption is met.

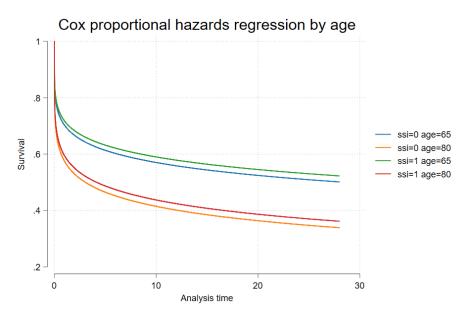


We will also include the following plots:

Hazard Curve for SSI Recipients vs Non-Recipients



Hazard Curve By Age Group, By Race, and By Projected Benefit Amount for SSI Recipients vs Non-Recipients. As an example, the graph below shows hazard curves by age using simulated data.



Statistical Models & Hypothesis Tests

This section describes the statistical models and hypothesis tests that will make up the analysis — including any follow-ups on effects in the main statistical model and any exploratory analyses that can be anticipated prior to analysis.

Statistical Models:

We will use a Cox Proportional Hazards Model estimated using a control function approach (Tchetgen Tchetgen et al. 2015). We use the random assignment to the mailed letter group as an instrumental variable. Recent studies have used similar designs to study the effect of other social and health insurance programs on mortality and health, such as TANF (Courtin et al. 2020), EITC (Dow et al. 2020), SNAP (Heflin, Ingram & Ziliak (2019), Medicaid (Baicker et al. 2013) and general marketplace-based health insurance coverage (Goldin, Lurie, and McCubbin 2021). Goldin, Lurie, and McCubbin (2021)'s and Baicker et al. (2013)'s approaches are most similar to ours. Goldin, Lurie, and McCubbin (2021) use random assignment to a mailed-letter group as an instrumental variable and show letter-induced enrollment in ACA marketplace health insurance coverage decreases mortality. Baicker et al. (2013) use random selection into Oregon's Medicaid lottery as an instrumental variable approach to assess how Medicaid coverage affects health.

Although the 2-Stage Least Squares Regression approach is commonly used for instrumental variable analyses like ours (e.g. Gerber, Green, and Sachar 2003; Baicker et al. 2013; Goldin, Lurie, and McCubbin 2021), we use a time-to-event approach instead for several reasons. 1) We are interested in time to death rather than probability of death over the time period of analysis, which is what the 2SLS approach gives, and 2) given our data, a time to event approach also gives us greater statistical power to detect an effect.

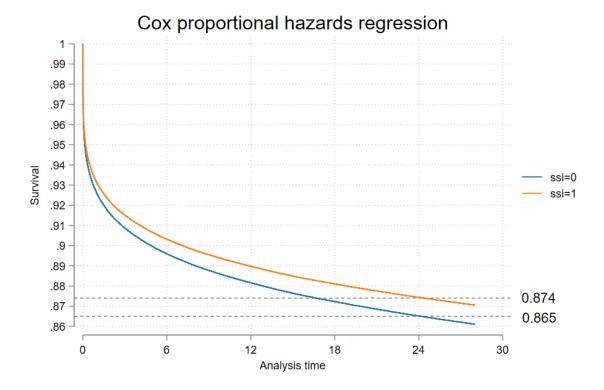
To the first point, Goldin, Lurie, and McCubbin (2021) and Baicker et al. (2013) use the 2SLS approach to determine whether or not enrollment in insurance makes a person less likely to die or experience a health problem, respectively, over the time period under analysis. Similarly, Gerber, Green, and Sachar (2003) use the 2SLS approach to determine the probability a person votes. The 2SLS approach would give us an estimate of whether or not receiving SSI benefits led to a decrease in the probability of death over the 28-months in our observation period. Instead, we are interested, more specifically, in how much longer people who enroll in letter-induced SSI benefits may live than those who do not receive SSI benefits. A time-to-event approach allows us to measure the outcome variable in this way.

To demonstrate that the time-to-event approach gives us greater statistical power to detect an effect of SSI benefit receipt on mortality, we have conducted simulation-based power analysis. The plot below demonstrates our minimum detectable effect at 80% power, a 0.08 effect on the hazard ratio. This effect translates to a less than 1 percentage point difference in mortality at 24 months for those who receive SSI benefits versus those who did not receive SSI benefits. 24 months after letters were mailed, we would expect 87.4% of people who received SSI benefits to

be still alive, whereas we would only expect 86.5% of those who did not receive SSI benefits to be still alive.

For reference, the U.S. Social Security Administration's (2019) Actuarial Life Tables estimates people aged 65 to 80 to live, on average, to 85.5 (Males) or 87.5 (Females) years of age, with the yearly probability of death for people aged 65-80 being 0.03 (Males) and 0.02 (Females).

Cox Proportional Hazards Regression Survival Curve using Simulated Data



Note: The y-axis scale on this plot is limited in range from 0.86-1.00, so that we can emphasize the magnitude of the difference between the two curves at 24 months: 0.874 survival rate for people who received SSI benefits compared to a survival rate of 0.865 for those who did not receive SSI benefits.

Another reason the time-to-event approach is better suited for our data is that we have a longer time period of analysis than do Goldin, Lurie, and McCubbin (2021). The survival curves in the figure above also demonstrate that extending the longer the time period under analysis, the more likely we are to be able to detect an effect, as the survival curves get further apart.

We will start by testing the most parsimonious model, without any fixed-effects or covariates, because of the random assignment to the mailed letter group and following the approaches of Baicker et al. (2013) and Goldin, Lurie, and McCubbin (2021). Then, we will add covariates and state-fixed effects and report these two models side-by-side. We think it may be particularly important to include state fixed effects in both the control function and the hazard function

because there are factors that we cannot measure that vary at the state level and affect both mortality and the likelihood of enrollment in SSI benefits given someone received a letter. These factors include but are not limited to: environmental quality, quality of local healthcare systems, the number and accessibility of SSA field offices, the amount the state offers as an SSI supplement (if any), and other program linkages to SSI benefits (such as SNAP and Medicaid). The parsimonious theoretical model for our confirmatory and exploratory analyses is as follows:

(Equation 1 - Control Function)
$$SSI\ Enrollment\ =\ c_0\ +\ c_z Letter\ +\ \Delta$$

$$\Delta\ =\ SSI\ Enrollment\ -\ Pr(SSI\ Enrollment\ =\ 1|\ Letter)$$
 (\$\Delta\ is mean zero residual error independent of assignment to mailed letter group)

(Equation 2 - Hazard Function)
$$\overline{h}(t|SSI\ Enrollment,\ Letter)\ = \beta_o(t)\ +\ \beta_1(t)\ SSI\ Enrollment\ +\ \{\rho_o(t)\ +\ \rho_1(t)\ Letter\}\ \Delta$$

The theoretical model including state-fixed effects and the controls from the MBR is as follows:

Equation 3:

SSI Enrollment =
$$c_0^{} + c_1^{}$$
Letter + $c_2^{}$ Sex + $c_3^{}$ Age + $c_4^{}$ Potential Benefit Amt + $c_5^{}$ WEP/GPO + state fixed effects + Δ

Equation 4:

$$\overline{h}(t|SSI\ Enrollment,\ Letter)\ = \beta_o(t)\ +\ \beta_1(t)\ SSI\ Enrollment\ +\ \beta_2(t)\ Age\ +\ \beta_3(t)\ Sex\ +$$

$$\beta_5(t)\ WEP/GPO\ +\ state\ fixed\ effects\ +$$

$$\{\rho_o(t)\ +\ \rho_1(t)\ Letter\}\ \Delta$$

Equation 3 includes the covariates we expect to affect enrollment in SSI, while Equation 4 includes the covariates we expect to affect mortality. While there are additional covariates we would ideally include in Equation 4 because of their established effect on mortality, we are limited by what variables are included in the MBR.

We use discrete time; therefore, the hazard rate is the probability that an individual will experience an event at time *t* while the individual is at risk for having the event.

Confirmatory Analyses:

H₀: The receipt of letter-induced SSI has no effect on mortality.

That is, in Equation 1, H_0 : $\beta_1(t) = 0$ for all t.

Sensitivity Analyses:

First, we will test that the proportional hazards assumption is not violated using the methods described in the Descriptive Statistics, Tables, and Graphs section.

Next, we will test for potential lagged effects of SSI enrollment on mortality. We plan to test for 2, 4, and 6 month lagged effects, but we will also report descriptive statistics for the average elapsed time between letters being mailed and people enrolling in SSI benefit and update the lagged intervals as needed. We will also test for local level effects of where a person lives in two ways: 1) we will specify a model with zip code level fixed effects, and 2) we will specify a model with additional control variables for the zip code contexts in which people live. Even at similar income levels, "geography is destiny" (Sandefur and Smyth 2011, p. 9). The services available to people from eligible populations are often determined not by what their problems are or what services they need, but by where they live (Sandefur and Smyth 2011). The variables we will include are listed in the Imported Variables section.

Finally, we will conduct subgroup analyses as sensitivity tests using the same modeling and estimation approach as our confirmatory model. The following chart summarizes the subgroups we will test.

Subgroup Analyses:

Subgroup	Defense for exploring heterogeneity
Age (Quintiles)	Hemmeter et al. (2020) show that there are heterogeneous effects of mailed letters on enrollment in SSI by age group. It is also plausible that there are heterogeneous effects of SSI benefits on mortality by age group because as people age, their health becomes more susceptible to intervention.
Sex	Females tend to have longer life expectancy than do males.
Potential SSI payment amount (Quintiles)	Letters had a larger effect on enrollment for people who had a smaller projected payment amount; therefore, we include this as a covariate in the control function.
	With respect to the effect on mortality, we predict there may be a larger reduction in mortality for those with a larger potential payment amount (and thus fewer resources at the baseline) who did manage to enroll because research has shown that even small absolute amounts that account for relatively

large percentage increases in a person's income can have significant health effects. I. In fact, the literature would suggest that every additional dollar a person receives would decrease their mortality. However, in this case, we may not find any significant differences between income groups because Medicaid receipt swamps any of those differences because it not only increases financial resources by increasing income, but also by decreasing out-of-pocket (OOP) healthcare costs that remain with Medicare alone. This decrease in OOP healthcare costs in turn increases health care access, which also negatively affects mortality. There may be a correlation between the additional income gained from SSI eligibility and the likelihood that they become new Medicaid beneficiaries. Since we do not have Medicaid enrollment data, we cannot parse out the difference in these two effects in this study. Medicaid State Type While there is heterogeneity in states' linkages between Medicaid and SSI, Hemmeter and Bailey (2015) show that 97.4% of people aged 65 and older who receive SSI benefits are also enrolled in Medicaid, so despite heterogeneity in state's SSI-Medicaid linkages, most SSI beneficiaries over 65 are enrolled in Medicaid. Further, while we would love to know the role of Medicaid in all of this, for our broader question, which is understanding effects of administration on mortality, it really doesn't matter. Because there's this easy administrative linkage from SSI to Medicaid, increased access to SSI means--due to administrative reasons--access to Medicaid as well. So we're getting the total effect of this administrative easing by reducing learning costs. Race There is evidence that even at similar income levels, racial disparities in mortality remain among older adults (Yao & Robert 2008). We will conduct exploratory analysis to see whether the effect of SSI benefits on mortality varies by racial group, particularly whether it

	differs between Black, White, and Latino/a individuals. We acknowledge limitations in the racial data contained in the Social Security Record we are using (see further discussion of
COVID-19 effects	Social support programs like Supplemental Security Income are in part intended to support people in times of emergency. As such, we argue our inferences remain externally valid even though one of these emergencies, the COVID-19 pandemic, occurred during our period of observation and affected the mortality of subgroups within our population differently. For example, research shows low-income and Black individuals are more likely to die from COVID-19 than higher-income and white individuals, respectively (Lopez, Hart, and Katz 2021; Millet et al. 2020; Price-Haywood et al. 2020). As a sensitivity analysis, we will test whether there were significant changes in the effect of SSI benefits on mortality potentially induced by the COVID-19 pandemic by testing whether there are significant changes in the relationship between SSI benefits and mortality between the two following time periods: 1) our entire period of observation Sept 2017 to January 2021 and 2) Sept 2017 until March 2020 (when cases of COVID-19 began to spike in the U.S). It should be noted that since we cannot identify cause of death, any differences we find between the two time periods may not be due to COVID-19 and may be affected by the fact that the longer a person receives SSI benefits to positively affect their health and extend their life.
Spillover Effects	In our data, we have addresses for all individuals. We will match these and construct an indicator for whether a person lives at the same address as someone who received a letter, but were not assigned to the mailed-letter group themselves. It is possible that someone who was not assigned to the mailed-letter group could have been exposed

someone who did receive a letter. In the original study, Hemmeter et al. (2020) did not text for this possible spillover effect.
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California's 2019 SNAP Benefit Changes:

It should be noted that during our period of analysis, California expanded eligibility for SNAP benefits to SSI beneficiaries. Previously, recipients of SSI benefits in CA were not eligible for SNAP because the state offered an SSI supplement. However, in 2019, CA removed this restriction and SSI beneficiaries became eligible for SNAP benefits. There was widespread take-up of this new benefit. Approximately 75% of those eligible enrolled; therefore, given CA's large population size and that they make up a significant portion of our population and that SNAP benefits have been independently linked to decreased mortality (Heflin et al. 2019), we will test to make sure that this increase in SNAP benefits is not driving our findings. State fixed effects should capture this, but as an additional sensitivity analysis, we will also duplicate the analysis leaving CA out of the sample.

Cause of Death:

It should also be noted, given the mechanisms through which increases in income and access to Medicaid decrease mortality, we do not expect this effect to be constant across all causes of death. We expect these mechanisms to primarily operate on preventable causes of death (as categorized by the OECD), such as:

- Endocrine and metabolic diseases (e.g. diabetes, high blood pressure, obesity)
- Cardiovascular and Circulatory System Disease
- Respiratory Diseases
- Neoplasms (cancer)

If we are able to obtain a data use agreement with the Center for Disease Control to use their National Death Index data, we could restrict our analysis to only those who died of preventable causes.

Possibility of Contamination of the Control with Second Letter Mailing:

Throughout 2020, after the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic and given the enrollment induced by the letters from the prior RCT, SSA sent out additional letters to people who were potentially eligible for SSI informing them about the benefits. We are working on getting more information about this second mailing: When did the mailing occur? Who was the population targeted? We will use this information to 1) conclude if it is possible our control was contaminated, and 2) if the control was potentially contaminated, we will conduct sensitivity analyses where we restrict the time period of observation to only that prior to the second mailing. It is possible, but not guaranteed, that we will be able to access the assignment to the second-mailed letter group. Although the second mailing was not random, we will use the assignment to the second mailed letter group for additional sensitivity analyses.

Inference Criteria, Including Any Adjustments for Multiple Comparisons:

For all tests, we will use a p-value of 0.10 and use two-tailed tests. We will not correct for multiple tests because we are only conducting one confirmatory test. To select our model, we conducted simulation-based power analyses, and those analyses indicated that, given our model selection, we have 80% power to estimate an effect of 0.08.

Limitations:

Limitations for exploratory analyses of heterogeneous effect of SSI benefits on mortality by race: There is significant missing data for the race variable we have, as well as it is difficult to compare the data that is there. Even when individuals had to manually file Social Security card applications at an agency field office, race and ethnicity information was voluntary because it is not necessary for SSA to administer the program. Since the information is voluntary, it is a self-selecting sample. The agency has changed the number and definition of race categories over the years, so long-term comparisons are difficult (Martin 2016).

Limitations to subgroup analyses using SNAP data (that is collected as part of SSR):

We think it plausible that people who receive both SNAP and SSI benefits may have greater reductions in mortality than people who only receive SSI benefits. However, the data we have only records whether a SNAP application was taken from the individual alongside their SSI application (see Transformations of Variables section for further discussion of this). The number of cases where a SNAP application was taken are relatively few, and taking an application does not indicate the person actually received the benefits. Therefore, we cannot analyze the subgroups of people who were enrolled in SNAP prior to being grouped directly because this would be subject to post-treatment bias. We will report descriptive statistics about the subgroups of people who applied for SSI benefits that were already receiving SNAP, who applied for SNAP at the same time they applied for SSI, and who neither submitted a new SNAP application nor were already receiving benefits. Descriptive statistics will allow us to get a better understanding of who belongs to these groups.

Limitation of letters:

One limitation of the original RCT trial study design (and with all other conventional mail-based RCT trials) is that we cannot confirm whether recipients opened and read the letters. Hence, our analysis is based on Intention-to-Treat. Another limitation is that SSA does not know SSI eligibility with certainty until after an individual applies, since they do not have information on individuals' assets or full income. Therefore, letters are sent to "likely eligible beneficiaries" following a preliminary assessment of people's eligibility made before sending out letters.

Link to an Analysis Code/Script:

The code for this project is housed on our github page.

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